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Editorial

METHOD OR MATERIAL?

Under "Reports from the Classical Field" of this issue of the *Journal* is presented a collection of programmes of the Classical Association meetings of twelve states, aggregating fifty-nine papers. An analysis of the subjects of these papers shows that thirteen were on some general subject pertinent to a classical meeting, as, for instance, "The Power of the Classics," "What Shall the Classical Teacher Do with His Leisure Time?" etc.; ten papers presented material of classical knowledge calculated to add to the teacher's equipment in his subject; and thirty-six papers dealt with methods of instruction, confined chiefly to the secondary field.

No one can read these programmes without a feeling of gratification over the wide activity among classical teachers which these papers indicate. But the huge disproportion of those who are asking "How shall I teach?" to those who ask "What have I to teach?" certainly calls for a word of passing comment, and, more than that, for serious thought.

We have no desire to call in question the wisdom of discussion by teachers of their various methods of presenting their subjects. Such discussion must result in much good both to those who present the papers, through the careful formulation of their own ideas, and to those who hear and discuss them, through the awakening and stimulating of new ideas. But when we see whole programmes devoted to method only, and that, out of a total number of fifty-nine papers, only ten are apparently devoted to advancing actual knowledge of the subject-matter of classical study; we ask, Is this proportion wise? Are we not giving too much time and attention to methods

of instruction, and too little to the acquisition of a rich and varied knowledge of the classics out of which our instruction shall spring? Unless a teacher has this rich and varied knowledge, no amount of method will save him. And, on the other hand, if he does have it, if he has an accurate knowledge of the technique of the language, is well read in its literature, knows some of the great books of the great scholars who have worked in these fields through the centuries, and is himself bubbling over with the enthusiasm of the teacher who loves his work—such a teacher will speedily find his own method, a method which will be far better for him than any other, however good, worked out by another man. Such a teacher will be constantly studying both method and material; and his own enthusiasm for extending the bounds of his knowledge, together with the results of his work will be constantly flowing out to his students.

THE "CLASSICAL JOURNAL" AND THE INDIVIDUAL TEACHER

The *Journal* comes to each one of its readers as a monthly classical programme. Its ideals are those which have been presented above: to discuss editorially topics of general interest, to give a condensed account of the classical activities over the whole field, to keep the reader informed of the current classical literature, to give him the best available papers on the general phases of the work, and on methods of instruction in the different grades of teaching. But most of all, the *Journal* desires to obtain and give to its readers the results of the investigations of our scholars in the subject-matter itself of the classics. The great majority of these papers are first read and discussed in some classical meeting. But the proportion of those who are able to attend these meetings is always very small as compared with the great body of teachers. Hence it is a subject of congratulation to the *Journal* that it can offer to this larger body the choicest parts of these varied programmes, and thus help all to keep moving forward toward a wider classical knowledge.

CAESAR'S BATTLEFIELDS IN 1908

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As a prologue to the Caesar expedition proper we walked along the chalk cliffs from Dover to Deal through the country where Britain first rallied to repel the Roman invaders. Our arrival in Dover was in the midst of very unpromising weather. It had been raining all day and the clay was moist and slippery. Our innkeeper considered such a trip quite impossible and heartily discouraged an attempt, but to us this time alone was opportune as prearranged plans demanded our presence in Paris the following day. The trial alone could satisfy us; hence we threaded our way past the harbor and along the narrow shore to a point where the cliff rises abruptly. Here the path of the coast guard led us to the top, and, once on the heights, the great view which spread out before us left no room even for a thought of return.

The dull heavy light of the fading afternoon rested upon everything, alluring the fancy and lending that melancholy spirit which gives vigor to the imagination. Looking out across the channel with its numerous ocean craft of all nations, we knew that behind the bank of mist lay the port of Itius and the land of ancient Gaul. Behind us rose the ramparts of a British fort still refusing friendly shore to those who cross to trespass upon British rights. As far as the eye could reach toward the north and west were undulating pastures. The only sounds were the washing waves of the ebbing tide two hundred feet below us, and the rainy-day screamings of the gulls as they flew about between us and the sea. With the eyes of a Briton of those anxious days of 55 B. C. we could see the two hundred triremes and transports of the Romans coming across the sea and we could follow them as they turned and skirted the shore toward the north.

After five miles a depression in the cliffs admitted us to the beach where the receding tide had left a border of pebbles and sea-moss winding like a roadway at the foot of the perpendicular cliff. In this little cove of St. Margaret's a group of summer homes has nestled

itself to share and multiply the beauties of a pretty spot. By a steep, winding path between rows of rhododendron and holly we reached the heights again and in the deepening twilight went on, while the cliffs gradually became lower until we passed over a steep hill and into the little hamlet of Sandown. This fishing-village is situated on a broad, level, sandy beach shut in on the west by low receding hills which extend northward as far as the eye can see. Here Caesar dared at last to land and meet the sturdy islanders. Here they met defeat and the unaccustomed waves played havoc with the victor's fleet. Every succeeding tide washes far in upon the land, and a fate similar to that of Caesar still awaits the fisherman who neglects to strand his bark high.

The evening was now well advanced and a walk of less than two miles across the plain, renowned for that first great struggle for British liberty, brought us to Deal. By a late train we arrived in Dover shortly before midnight.

On Monday, July 20, a party of four met in Paris in response to Professor Dennison's invitation issued in this *Journal* last April. This was the formal commencement of the Caesar excursion.

The first day was spent at the renowned Caesarian museum at St. Germain. Here in a fine old royal palace the French government has collected and classified the choicest Gallo-Roman remains. Among the host of interesting objects are five *stimuli* from the plain at Alesia, one of which is especially well preserved. There are also fine specimens of *pila* points, *gladii*, shield-bosses, and samples from nearly every category of military accouterment. Many of these shield-bosses when found contained a collection of coins, thus suggesting their use as purses by the legionaries. A well-preserved Roman sandal gives an accurate idea of the ancient footwear, and several slipper-like horse-shoes of iron, to be secured to the foot by means of thongs, emphasize some of the differences intervening between us and that ancient time. In the collection of Gallic coins are to be found the names of most of the tribes mentioned by Caesar and one coin even bears the name of Vercingetorix.

Early Wednesday morning we left Paris and reached Berry-au-bac about two o'clock in the afternoon. Berry-au-bac is a small village on the river Aisne near the place where excavations have shown that

Caesar's works were located in 57 B. C. in the great campaign against the Belgae. From the railroad station we walked along the modern road to the river which is crossed by a stone bridge on the approximate site of the ancient one defended by Caesar's lieutenant Titurius. The Aisne is here a small river of possibly fifty or sixty feet in width, flowing through a low, flat valley and protected by small levees along its banks. From the bridge at a short distance upon the left may be seen, across the low-lands, the flats where the Belgae found a ford. Behind a scattering row of poplars the Miette winds its way from the north along the course where it once flowed between the two hostile lines. As soon as we had emerged from the streets of the village, before us in the distance lay the ridge of land occupied by the Roman line and camp. At the end of a mile the modern road crosses the ridge and descends to the Miette beyond; a quarter of a mile to the right was the site of the camp itself.

We were struck immediately by the gentleness of the rise of the ground which Caesar describes as having *ex utraque parte lateris deiectus*. Caesar aptly calls the ridge a *collis paululum ex planitie editus*; yet so gradual is the elevation above the surrounding level that it scarcely seems a hill. The top of this *collis* is not a level shelf of land as the map might cause one to think, but the level rises gently from the southwest toward the camp which occupied the highest point.

In our exploration of the battlefields we found ourselves much favored by the season of the year. After harvest the contour of the land is more conspicuously visible and all the fields are freely accessible without damage to the crops, while at the same time it is possible to have the beauties of the yellows and russets beside the fresh greens of the newly mown fields.

We found the Miette a tiny stream which one can leap across. It is bordered on either side by a marshy strip where now flourishes an artificial wood of eucalyptus and poplars. Toward the northwest are the low hills which were occupied by the Belgae, and beyond these may be traced the avenue of their fatal flight. The casual observer finds in this place only a pretty expanse of French farming country with here and there a distant row of graceful poplars and occasionally a village, or a spire or chimney to tell of a village unseen. However, for one with a fondness for history, who knows of the struggle which

took place here, it becomes once more a scene of battle, and that long-past day is lived over again.

Noon of the next day found us in Hautmont, the smoky, uninviting, manufacturing city which now covers either *collis pari acclivitate* and fills the intervening valley of the Sambre where Caesar was almost successfully surprised by the Nervii. On account of the modern city which so completely covers the whole site this visit is somewhat disappointing though it is well worth while.

By a narrow lane leading away at the left of the Hotel de France we were able to reach a fine point of view in the Bois de Quesnoy whence we could look out over the housetops and gain an excellent idea of the contour of the whole valley with its hills of equal descent on either side.

In a walk of a few miles beyond the city in the direction of the Roman approach we found enduring even to our own time a type of hedge very similar to that described by Caesar. It is possible to walk as we did for two or three miles along the country roads without catching more than an occasional glimpse beyond the aisle of hedges. Not only do hedges line the roadside, but each separate field has its hedge, each lane its hedge, until the country becomes, as Caesar said, *quo non modo non intrari sed ne perspicere quidem posset*. Many of these hedges are apparently very old. Sometimes they have grown into rows of trees, and sometimes they are dwarfed, with trunks the thickness of a thigh and their limbs intertwined like basketwork. As far as we were able to observe in our travels this condition seems to be peculiar to this one district, though hedges are common elsewhere in France.

A few days later we had the pleasure of being conducted from Paris to Alesia by the distinguished French scholar, M. le Commandant Espérandieu, who is in charge of the excavations now in progress on this ancient site of the capital of the Mandubii. Though M. Espérandieu talked to us entirely in French and our short sojourn in the country had not yet rendered us very familiar with the language, nevertheless his cordial hospitality and enthusiasm in his great work caused us to forget that we did not understand all he said.

As we walked over the plain on our way from the station at Les Laumes to Mount Alesia, we crossed the old lines of Caesar's cir-

cumvallation. Close beside the road these trenches have been opened by a transverse excavation which shows as distinctly as though made yesterday the outlines of the ancient *fossae*. Where the soil has been undisturbed the layers of gravel and clay lie in plainly marked strata, but in the old trench the soil is conglomerate with no regularity in its composition. After the V-shaped excavations were deserted by the Romans the rains, the weather, and processes of cultivation, in time slowly covered the hollows over to keep them until our own time. Here we were able to stand in Caesar's own trench and look across the plain toward Alesia just as the legionaries did so long ago. It made two thousand years seem only a day.

On our way to the plateau we stopped at the little village of Alise-St. Reine at the home of M. Pernet, the veteran archaeologist who worked with Colonel Stoffel in the well-known excavations undertaken by Napoleon III. We had the pleasure of seeing and handling some of the most interesting recent finds. Among them were a well-preserved well-bucket with a piece of chain attached; a shepherd's pipe of wood which can still be played upon; a weight in the form of a bust of Silenus and an appliqué in the form of a dying Gaul from some piece of bronze work. It was a moment of great enthusiasm when during our stay M. Espérandieu discovered and deciphered a formerly unnoticed inscription upon a newly found bronze vase. This was especially interesting as it is one of the first inscriptions to be found upon the plateau.

Next we went on up the hill past the monument whence Vercingetorix in bronze looks sadly down upon the scene of his final fall and across the plateau to the site of the ancient Gallo-Roman city. Excavations have advanced far enough to make it now possible to see the great semicircle of the theater which still preserves the outlines of the stage and orchestra. Back of this toward the east are the remains of the podium of a temple and still farther are the foundations of a building with three apses and a substructure at one corner resembling a drain. Extending east and north from this point is a long stretch of street pavement. On the south side of this street two rows of bases of columns mark the place where was once the forum. Toward the north are numerous basement rooms with stairs and niches; one elaborate group must have belonged to an edifice of some

pretensions. There are many wells some of which are still good and furnish drinking water for the excavators.

Local archaeologists are taking a very active interest in this work at Alesia and everything is done to render their results accessible to the student. A monthly periodical under the name of *Pro Alesia* is issued reviewing the excavations and accumulating all possible material which will contribute to a more complete knowledge of Alesia's history. Very good postal cards are likewise published by the organization giving illustrations of the finds.¹ All proceeds which can be thus obtained are used for the furtherance of this scientific cause so deserving of encouragement.

Our next visit was to Autun, the ancient Augustodunum, which was founded by Augustus for the purpose, it is supposed, of supplanting the neighboring Bibracte and thus breaking up a Gallic stronghold. A monument to the national hero Diviciacus graces one of the city squares. In this city lived M. Bulliot, the indefatigable excavator of Mt. Beuvray, to whose able research is due without doubt the identification of Mt. Beuvray with the ancient Bibracte. In his old home, the Hotel de Rollin, there is now a Gallic museum where most of the finds made on the site of Bibracte are kept. The collection includes a good assortment of pottery, bronze, and inscriptions.

From Etang, a small town a few miles beyond Autun, we made excursions to Mt. Beuvray and to the battlefield of the Helvetians near Toulon-sur-Arroux. To the wealthy and flourishing city of Bibracte, built upon a hill high above the surrounding plain, the curse of old is quite literally applicable, "not one stone shall remain upon another." Indistinct ridges mark the lines where once rose the temple walls. A chapel of St. Martin now stands upon the site to perpetuate to the present time the continuous worship upon this spot of a religious ideal through more than two thousand years. There are a few scanty remains of the city wall and excavations reveal many private buildings and metal manufactories, but the ancient walls were again covered to prevent disintegration.

It is only a short walk from Toulon-sur-Arroux to the place where Caesar had his final engagement with the Helvetians. From a point

¹ These cards may be obtained by addressing Mlle. Marlet, Alise-St. Reine (Côte d'Or), France.

on the hill top near the Helvetian wagon-camp, which Stoffel recommends as commanding an excellent view, we were able to survey the whole battlefield. We could see into the valley toward the south and west whence the Boii returned to aid their countrymen. In front of us were spread out toward the east the long irregular hills which delivered the Helvetian forces breathless to Caesar's legions on the opposite height. On the north a narrow ravine separated us from Montmort where the second stand was taken. The contour of the hills aids much in understanding the story of the conflict which ensued and the retreat of the Helvetians. They naturally exerted every effort to avoid retreating to lower ground and at the same time they sought to maintain a position between Caesar and their families and belongings in the camp. The necessary result of these two influences must have been a retreat toward the heights of Montmort. Thither Caesar pursued them and having foiled the Boii in their attempted rescue he drove the emigrants in flight over the hills toward the north.

Passing through Decize, the ancient Decetia where Caesar convened the Aeduan senate in 52 B. C. (*B. G.* vii. 33), we stopped at Nevers the ancient Noviodunum, and read Caesar's account (*B. G.* vii. 55, 56) which tells of the terrible slaughter here of Roman merchants and of his desperate crossing of the Loire when he checked the force of the current for his men by stationing lines of horses in the stream above them.

The city of Clermont is the ancient Augustonemetum whither Augustus transferred the Gallic city of Gergovia. The modern market-place is adorned with a bronze equestrian statue of Vercingetorix. We walked from this place to the rugged, volcanic hill of Gergovia with its rocky top and sides. A winding mountain path leads to the top over the saddle of land between the plateau of Gergovia and the Risolle heights; thence east to the brow of the hill where stands a monument commemorating the successful defense by Vercingetorix of his native town. The terrace on which was stationed the Gallic camp outside the city walls extends along the south slope of the hill like a great step. Toward the east a spur reaches out, over which the Aeduan reinforcements came hurrying and terrified the Romans. La Roche Blanche juts out a little toward the west, and far across the valley we could see the site of the larger

camp close beside Orcet. In our fancy we could draw the lines of defense connecting the large camp with the smaller one on La Roche Blanche.

We spent Sunday in Lyons and visited Trévoux on Monday. A local railroad line runs directly north from Lyons over the heights of Sathonay and descends rapidly to the plain just south of the Formans River which was the scene of the Helvetian's fatal attempt to cross the Saône. The hills between this plain and the camp of Caesar probably kept the enemy in ignorance of his actions while his scouts were able to watch their movements from the higher land. *Incredibili lenitate ita ut oculis in utram partem fluat iudicari non possit* is true of the Saône today also. A slight flattening of the river bed near Trévoux checks the current and causes the stream with its many reeds about the shore to resemble a pond.

The continuation of our journey toward the north the following day abounded in picturesque scenery as the train wound its way through the footholds of the Jura across the land of the Sequani to Besançon, the ancient Vesontio. The situation of Besançon is most striking and is rendered more impressive by its extensive modern forts. Mountains frowning with fortifications shut it in on all sides. The eminence which closes the neck of the peninsula ends abruptly at the river on either side with cliffs a hundred feet or more in sheer descent. A railway and highway pass on one side, simply a roadway on the other. A modern tunnel has been cut through this rocky hill connecting the two ends of the curve which the river describes, thus enabling the river boats to shorten their route by two miles.

Continuing to follow the beautiful valley of the Dubis, we soon crossed the border of France and entered her much mourned Alsace. The highest peak of the Vosges crowned by the stately Hochkoenigsberg towered on our left as we drew near to Osthelm. In the plain between the railroad station and the mountains lies the field of battle where Ariovistus met his defeat. This identification is the conjecture of Colonel Stoffel who, unfortunately unable to make excavations, believed that this site alone would satisfy the conditions given in Caesar's narrative. He places the large camp of the Roman's near the railroad and the smaller camp at the foot of the hill now occupied by Bebelheim. The camp of the Germans he supposes to have been

on the site of the present town of Zellenberg on the terrace upon which, out of the reach of Caesar, they had marched from the north. From this point the Rhine may be seen like a silver thread in the distance fifteen miles away and far beyond are the dark outlines of the Black Forest, the home of the Germans. It seems probable that this fact may have influenced the Germans in the course which they took in their hasty retreat toward home.

Twelve miles farther north, from the little town of Epfig we visited the mound where the conference between Caesar and Ariovistus was held a few days before the battle. It is a gently rounded, isolated hill which, Colonel Stoffel says, is the only one in this vicinity which meets the requirements of Caesar's description.

Two members of the Caesar party later made an independent visit to the land of the Veneti and the scene of the naval battle which was so ingeniously won in 56 B. C. A short visit at the mouth of the Loire was sufficient to assure one of the impossibility of this place as the scenes of the conflict narrated by Caesar. He complains of the *paucitatem portuum* and of the *tantes tempestates Oceani* which shows beyond doubt that his fleet went some distance beyond the mouth of the river. The places variously identified with the scene of the battle, whether the Grande Brière, Batz, or Le Croisic, are so near the Loire where the boats were built that vessels plying to them could have had no experience with a *vastum atque apertum mare*.

The general conditions of land and sea surrounding the heights of St. Gildas and the Bay of Morbihan, thirty-five or forty miles north of the Loire, give strong support to this as the actual scene of the encounter. Here on the heights Caesar could have found excellent natural advantages for protection against the enemy while he awaited the fleet, for on three sides is the sea with rocky shores. On the fourth side the peninsula opens upon broad, open fields which would furnish forage. The Bay of Morbihan may well be the port near at hand whence issued the fleet of the Veneti. The heights lie about one hundred feet above the sea and thus afford the *propinquus despectus in mare*. All of the shores round about this region are very rocky and shelving. At low tide broad expanses of black moss-covered rocks are exposed along the margins of the sea which are treacherously concealed beneath the surface of the water when the tide is high.

This fact makes it still necessary that the craft for use along the shore should have flat bottoms.

On our way into Italy we crossed the beautiful, mountainous land of the Sequani across which the Helvetians threaded their way from the Pas de l'Ecluse to the Saône. The pass *vix qua singuli carri ducerentur* is now avoided by a long railway tunnel. From the train, however, it is possible to appreciate thoroughly the difficulties of former times. The railroad follows closely the valley of the Rhone from this point to Geneva. The frequently precipitous banks show clearly why Caesar did not find it necessary to construct a continuous line of fortifications along the river.

The Simplon route over the Alps now makes it convenient to spend a half day in Martigny, the ancient Octodurus. This town is located in the deep valley of the Rhone where the river turns almost at right angles and flows north into Lake Geneva. It was here that the mountaineers fell unexpectedly upon the camp of Galba (*B. G.* ii. 1-6) in its disadvantageous position and nearly defeated the Romans. The location is a beautiful one at the north end of the Great St. Bernard pass with lofty mountains on all sides and the distant prospective of of the Rhone valley as it disappears among the mountains toward the east and north.

This excursion, which is easily within the reach of every ambitious Caesar teacher, required about fourteen hundred miles of travel. By buying *circular* tickets the fare is reduced to one cent a mile. The total expenses of the trip which lasted fifteen days averaged three dollars a day. Incidentally it is possible to see not only the land of Caesar and the Gauls, but also modern France with its cathedrals, palaces and beautiful landscapes, its capital city and unrivaled collections of art. The members of the party express the sincere hope that similar excursions may be organized for subsequent summers. The writer will be glad to furnish to any contemplating this expedition, whatever information he may be able to give concerning hotels and other accommodations.

SOME SUGGESTIONS FOR THE IMPROVED TEACHING OF ANCIENT HISTORY¹

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After considering various phases of history teaching, we now are confronted with the riddle of the historical Sphinx. The question is this: How can ancient history be taught so as to develop the historical mind, awaken the greatest enthusiasm, prepare for ideal citizenship, and last, but not least, afford an adequate disciplinary training to fulfil the college requirements? It would take an Oedipus surely to answer this riddle, and it is not the aim of this paper to attempt to solve the problem, but only to suggest some things which from experience have been found helpful.

First, the improved teaching of history is not the mere hearing of a lesson which has been memorized more or less imperfectly, but it is teaching the student to find out the facts, to observe causes and their effects, to trace the progress of events, to judge concerning the wisdom of the policies pursued, and by sympathetic imagination to enter into the spirit of a bygone age. This means more than the exercise of memory; it means serious work which shall bring into play all the faculties of mind. The teacher must be the director of this work. Kingsley has well defined the mission of the teacher when he said; "I am not here to teach you history. I am here to teach you how to teach yourselves history. I will give you the scaffolding as well as I can; you must build the house."

To do this, the student must be made to understand his textbook is not the only book that ever was written on that subject; that it does not contain by any means all that is known or that is most interesting on that period; and, moreover, that it is not a final authority. Of course this temptation to depend entirely upon a textbook can be avoided by using no special textbook. If the library available has

¹ Read before the Maine section of the Classical Association of New England, at Bowdoin College, February 7, 1908.

many books and the students are all earnest workers, this is doubtless the ideal plan, but the average student in the secondary school has neither time nor ability to acquire a satisfactory knowledge in this way. In his journey through the ancient lands he needs a reliable guidebook so that he may not wander too far astray and get lost in the dense realms of research. The textbook enables the student to trace with ease the main facts of history and get a connected idea of the subject. It provides, as it were, a sort of "blazed trail" through the wilderness, and by following this the student may make for himself an avenue of thought broad and far-reaching. Moreover, when it is a possible thing, it is excellent for the student to have two or more textbooks, or even a small library which he may consult in preparing his lesson.

Now in order that the class may have a clear and logical idea of the sequence of facts and may see that there are some things outside of the textbook that it would be desirable to know, a syllabus is a valuable aid in teaching. In fact, it is very important that the students have a rather detailed analysis which will suggest all the important things that they should know and will help them to fix in mind the chronological order and logical sequence of events. This topical outline may be given to a class as a basis of preparation and recitation, or made out with them after the discussion in the class. It is more valuable for the student to make his own outline if he is capable of doing so. Occasionally one finds a class that can do that, but for the most part, especially in the lower classes, the results are unsatisfactory. If students can make their own detailed outline, the syllabus of the New England History Teachers' Association can be used to advantage in assigning work.

The outline should serve as a skeleton for the preparation of the lesson and should always be more comprehensive than the textbook so that the student may be stimulated to do outside reading. A library, although of a limited number of volumes, is necessary for a thorough and interesting study of history. Reading may be directed and secured by assigning each day topics to be reported upon by special individuals or by the whole class. In fact, it is always well to assign one or more topics for research work to the class in general. The object of the preparation is to obtain as wide a knowledge as

possible of the subject contained in the outline assigned for the lesson. The textbook should be studied first in order that a foundation may be laid for further work and that should be supplemented by reading from at least one other book.

After the preparation comes the recitation which taxes the teacher's ingenuity to the utmost. There is a great temptation, especially if the teacher is overburdened with work, to be content with the mere hearing of a superficial account of what was found in the textbook, and furthermore, to congratulate oneself that even that has been learned. However, here the teacher must be on his guard, for it is his business, or more likely hers, to do as much teaching as the instructor in science or mathematics. If history is to be of any disciplinary value aside from memory training that must be secured or at least directed through the recitation. The average pupil never does any more thinking nor any more work than he feels obliged to.

How, then, should the recitation be conducted? It should, first of all, afford an opportunity for a free discussion of all that has been read. In this threshing process the chaff is sifted out and the wheat is garnered in. The teacher should be ready to enrich the lesson by wider reading and more mature thought. Let not the teacher, however, whose knowledge is limited and time for preparation more so, despair for he is not in danger of becoming a bore by wanting to talk all the time. By skilful questioning the instructor must direct the thought, quicken the intellect, train the judgment, and stimulate the imagination. Above all, he must awaken and hold the attention of the class. It is needless to say that he must be free from books and not tied to a chair. Too often teachers are handicapped by the fear that they shall not find out how little every student knows and give him as many zeros as he deserves. The tendency to hear a recitation and record ranks has a most deadening effect upon a class. How lacking in enthusiasm is the teacher that sits at a desk with record book in one hand and pencil in the other and by careful question and judicious judgment gives every pupil his deserved A, B, C, or D! The teacher needs every bit of his energy for the discussion, and the pupil's mind will be more active and his interest greater if he does not see the tyrant's blade suspended above his head and threatening

to fall. Let the teacher secure, if possible, a spirited discussion of the subject, giving each an opportunity to tell what he knows, and he cannot fail to get a very good impression of the knowledge each one has.

Pupils' reports are apt to be interesting and profitable to none but those making them. Encourage oral reports limited to two or three minutes. Questions should be asked that will appeal to the reason and judgment of the pupils. It is good training, though their reasoning be like the Irishmen's, one of whom said, "In our excavations in Babylon we have found wires, therefore the Babylonians must have used telegraphs." "Well," replied the other, "we have not found any wires in Egypt which shows that the Egyptians must have used the wireless system."

An interest can sometimes be awakened by reading some poem or other piece of literature. I recall a boy whose interest, not only in history but in literature, was aroused by the reading of Byron's *Isles of Greece*. The boy who cannot get interested in the Persian Wars after reading *The Victor of Salamis* must be a hopeless case. Pictures and illustrated lectures are a most valuable adjunct. Debates often stimulate interest. The relative merits of Aristides and Themistocles afford an argument which interests the dullest. Occasional lessons devoted entirely to outside work and papers portraying by means of imagination the life of the time also awaken interest and train the student. A carefully prepared paper on some subject may be required with profit once a term.

A notebook is a very important part of the work in history. This should contain first the systematic outline of the important events; secondly, the independent work of the pupil much of which cannot be taken up in class. Notes serve to help the student remember what he has read or heard. Finally, the notebook is a source of interest and pride to the student and with the aid of pictures is often a work of art. If pupils do not seem to enjoy keeping notebooks, it is a good thing in some classes to offer a prize for the best one. A rough notebook for daily use in the classroom seems necessary for secondary-school students, as they take more pride in notebooks which are kept carefully in ink.

The map drawing is another essential feature. This helps to fix in mind the places and make clear certain movements which other-

wise would mean little. The *Ivanhoe* map books which are so widely used have been a great help in teaching history.

The most important suggestion, however, for the improved teaching of history is the necessity of having the right kind of a teacher. The best method will fail in the hands of some teachers. Any well-trained person can teach Latin or mathematics, but it takes a genius to teach English or history successfully. Too often the latter subject falls to the over-worked teacher of Latin or Greek or that "professor of holes" on the faculty who never knew very much about the subject and who has no time for preparation, or worse still to the teacher who "always hated history." Knowledge, however, is not the most essential requirement of the history teacher. He above all others should be able to talk interestingly. Is it any wonder pupils do not pay attention when they are bored every day in the week with droning repetitions of the same old things they already know? Enthusiasm must ever be the history teacher's stock in trade. If he is not interested in his subject, how can he interest others? Besides, the teacher must be keen of intellect, sound of judgment, and wise of understanding to direct and train young minds in all the "glory that was Greece and the grandeur that was Rome."

In conclusion, then, whether textbook or syllabus be used, whether new or old methods be employed, matters not so much as whether the teacher be keenly alive to the possibilities of the subject, a master of facts, a lover of the true, the good, and the beautiful, capable of making the student live in the past and realize himself a part of the great whole in this world of "human becomings." With such teaching in our schools history will begin to take its rightful place in the curriculum for its educational value in training the student to understand the development of the human race, and his place in the movement, as well as his relation to his political and social environment.

THE MASTER'S DEGREE AS ESSENTIAL FOR A TEACHER OF PREPARATORY LATIN¹

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A unified and systematic scheme of education operative in all parts of the country has not yet been evolved in the United States, as it has in certain older countries of the world, but rapid progress in this direction has been made in the last two decades and discussion continues with unabated interest as a glance at the pages of the *Educational Review*, the *School Review*, and other educational journals will show. Teachers cannot come together, it seems, whether in national or sectional meetings, without considering some pedagogical phase of their profession; and this is a disposition greatly to be commended. A free interchange of opinion is a necessary prerequisite of true progress. Let us also add our contribution, and instead of taking up the question of the relation of the secondary schools to the university, or the ideal course of study for the high school, or the best way of teaching Latin prose, let us inquire what is the present meaning of the degree of Master of Arts, and especially whether it is expedient and advisable for high-school teachers of Latin to provide themselves with the training which this degree represents.

On this occasion I wish to consider briefly three aspects of the question, (1) the proportion in which holders of the Master's degree in all subjects, but particularly in Latin, are found on high-school faculties, and the esteem in which they are held by principals and school boards and others who are charged with high-school instruction; (2) the meaning of the Master's degree and the kind of training it should stand for, with especial reference to the needs of high-school teachers, and (3) the general question of the advisability of prospective teachers of Latin securing this additional training.

The answer to the first inquiry may be based partly upon statistics obtainable from high-school catalogues and partly upon the opinions

¹ Paper read at the annual meeting of the Classical Association of the Middle West and South held at Nashville in April, 1908.

of educators expressed in print or in written communications. To secure exact data I directed a questionnaire to the principals of 49 representative schools in the states of Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Ohio, and Wisconsin,¹ believing that the information thus obtained would represent the conditions that prevail in a large portion of the territory covered by the Classical Association of the Middle West and South. On the staff of instruction in these 49 high schools I find there are 983 teachers. Of this number 19 hold a Doctor's degree, 130 hold a Master's degree, 638 hold a Bachelor's degree only,² while 196 have no academic degree at all. In other words if these figures represent approximately what is true generally in the Northwest, over 65 per cent. of our high-school teachers are college graduates and over 13 per cent. have secured the additional scholastic training represented by the Master's degree. Although 196 appear to have no college degree at all, this number, as a matter of fact, includes many who have spent a year or more in study at a university or normal school and eventually will swell the number of college graduates. Some of the teachers in this class (not college trained) are instructors in subjects which generally do not presuppose a college education, as, for instance, drawing, music, commercial courses, and manual training, while others are old and tried appointees who have held their positions from before the time when college graduates were chosen by preference. The principals of some schools declare that these teachers are more valuable and efficient than other younger, and more highly trained instructors, and this may well be. Experience is a great teacher, and no one can suddenly acquire the poise and good sense which a successful teacher possesses after years spent in making mistakes and

¹ These schools were Aurora, Chicago (John Marshall), Elgin, Evanston, Oak Park, and Streator in Illinois; Evansville, Fort Wayne, Goshen, Indianapolis (Shortridge), Kokomo, Logansport, Marion, Peru, Richmond, South Bend, and Terre Haute in Indiana; Ann Arbor, Battle Creek, Bay City, Calumet, Detroit (Central), Grand Rapids (Central), Kalamazoo, Lansing, Muskegon, and Port Huron in Michigan; Bucyrus, Canton, Cleveland (Central), Columbus (North), Elyria, Findlay, Greenville, Hamilton, Lorain, Mansfield, Newark, Oberlin, Piqua, and Sandusky in Ohio; and Beloit, Green Bay, Milwaukee (East), Oshkosh, Racine, Sheboygan, Waukesha, and Wausau in Wisconsin. Similar inquiries sent to other schools were not answered.

² That is, this number does not include the 130 teachers who hold the Master's degree but have also the Bachelor's degree.

more years spent in correcting them. The appointment, however, of high-school teachers for charity's sake or merely because their services are cheap is fast becoming a thing of the past. The demand now is for teachers who know something more than what they propose to teach. It will be noted that my statistics are taken from comparatively large city high schools where both position and salary are likely to attract a better class of teachers, and it is probable that if these figures were made to include also a representative number of small high schools, the percentages would be somewhat reduced. The general conclusion would, however, be about the same, I think, namely, that over one-half of our high-school teachers have at least a college Bachelor's degree, and that perhaps one-eighth of them have also a Master's degree.

It would be most interesting to know what subjects the holders of Master's degrees in our high schools are teaching. This information would be difficult to obtain for the smaller high schools where often a teacher is expected to give instruction in as many as four different subjects although he may devote his main energies to but one or two. In the larger high schools as a rule one teacher or even several teachers devote all their time to giving instruction in the same subject, as, for example, chemistry, German, or Latin, and fairly satisfactory information may be obtained. We classicists have been inclined to boast that the teachers of Latin and Greek in the secondary schools in this country are better trained than are the teachers of any other subject, but it now becomes clear that teachers of the sciences, of English, and history, and German may rightfully press their claims of equal equipment and preparation with their classical colleagues. Of the 130 Masters in the large high schools to which I applied for information I was able to learn definitely in what branches of study 91 were giving instruction. There are 22 teachers of science (15 of the physical sciences, 7 of the biological sciences), 20 are teachers of Latin and Greek, 20 of English, 12 of history, 9 of German, 7 of mathematics, and 1 of political economy.¹ This computation is made on the supposition that there is in a high school an equal number of teachers of science or of English and Latin; though this is not quite

¹ A computation of the subjects taught by holders of the Doctor's degree shows that more are teachers of science than of the classics.

the case, since it is likely that the number of science or English instructors will generally exceed those of Latin, the proportion is nearly equal enough to make the figures significant.

Since we find so large a proportion of high-school instructors in possession of the Master's degree, let us inquire what is the sentiment of principals and school boards as to their fitness to teach and their superiority in general over other members of the high-school staff. In the first place let it be said that school authorities do not place upon the Master's degree as such the value that its holders confidently expect when they set forth in search of a position to teach. Quite to the contrary, in the minds of some high-school principals and members of school boards there is lodged the opinion that a student who took a Master's degree in the year immediately following graduation from college, having had no experience whatever in teaching, should not as a general thing receive much consideration as an applicant for a position in their school, for it is frequently the case, they think, that such an applicant did not have sufficient attainments or force of character to get a position on his Bachelor's degree, or, failing in a position taken immediately after graduating, was obliged to return to the university for an additional year. Such a view is narrow and unfair, of course, but the fact remains that one who has an advanced degree will not *ipso facto* obtain very wide recognition as an educator. The degree as such, it must be confessed, has no particular value commercially. The simple fact is, however unpleasant it may be, that boards of education are in search not of a degree but of a teacher; they want better equipment, it is true, but they demand also greater efficiency; in brief, they want teachers of pupils rather than of subjects. At the same time everybody recognizes that one who has the instincts of a teacher will be vastly more efficient if he has had also a broad and thorough training than he could possibly be without such training. I think it can be said without fear of contradiction that the attitude of school officers is favorable toward employing by preference teachers who hold a Master's degree all other things being equal, and in many schools a larger salary is paid to a teacher who has this additional training, especially if greater efficiency is thus secured. I feel certain also that there is a growing tendency to employ teachers who hold the Master's degree in high-

school positions and that educators strongly sympathize with such a tendency.

But what does the Master's degree signify, and are the advantages, which an additional year of study affords, sufficiently great to make the expenditure of time and money worth while?

In origin the Master's degree is as old as the Doctor's and meant about the same thing. But their later history has not been parallel, England having adopted the degree of Master of Arts and Germany having held to the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. Through the influence of European educational systems upon American systems both degrees were introduced into this country, and here they exist side by side in a certain more or less well-defined relation to each other, the Master's being the minor degree. In America, therefore, the Master's degree has had a significance not found elsewhere. Being correlated with the doctorate it is often regarded as a stepping-stone to the higher degree. Its relation to the Doctor's degree is described by many to be the same as that of the pro-seminar to the seminar in a German university: the one obliges a man to begin specialization and to acquire experience in dealing with evidence in fields that have already been worked over, the other requires him to make his specialization more intensive and to carry his research into provinces as yet unexplored. In the United States there has been in practice, and there is still, a marked difference. In some of our universities great emphasis is placed on the Master's degree, in others but little. In some places a full year of resident study is required, in others the requirements may be met in part by work done *in absentia*. Again the larger universities usually make it obligatory on the candidate to pursue graduate or "seminary" courses in three departments of study, two of which are expected to be allied, while other institutions notably the smaller colleges prescribe a year of postgraduate study in courses that are presumably but not necessarily advanced, and usually along lines of work in which the candidate found especial interest in his academic career. In the Middle West, where one of the important functions of higher educational institutions seems to be to train teachers for the secondary schools, there exist two clearly distinguished methods of obtaining the Master's degree. One appeals to the creative mind and invites the student to spend much time and

energy in a comparatively small field of investigation. It implies intensive specialization and is indeed a step in the direction of attaining the Doctor's degree. This year of application constitutes the first of the three years of severe study which is crowned by the distinction of the doctorate. All, however, cannot expect to be of a productive type of mind and contribute to the world's store of new knowledge. There are many who must devote themselves to the perpetuation of present knowledge merely, to the instruction of boys and girls in our high schools—a most noble task. For such as these the second method of obtaining the Master's degree is particularly fitted. This method *tends* toward specialization in two or three or four separate fields of study, but does not demand excessive specialization. It does not, however, make the Master's year a fifth year of indiscriminate undergraduate study; that to my mind would be an altogether false position. While the candidate may be allowed to pursue a certain amount of elementary work (as, for example, first- or second-year French or German which may be regarded as subsidiary subjects), his choice of work is in the main well correlated and permits him greatly to extend and enrich his stock of *information* in the subjects he proposes to teach. This is the important point. During such a year of well-co-ordinated, thorough study he will acquire power for his future work of teaching, since he will become more and more familiar with his subject. He will, to be sure, store away many facts which he could not wisely use in his teaching, but they will broaden his understanding, will make him see things in their proper relation, and will enable him to meet an emergency; further, if a student so trained is also a born teacher, his success and power in the schoolroom are assured.

Let us briefly outline such a course of study for a teacher of secondary Latin which would lead to the Master's degree. We will suppose that the candidate is to work in Latin, classical archaeology, and German, and take elementary French as a supporting subject. In Latin his time will be devoted mainly to a seminary course which will make an intensive study of the works of some writer or writers with which he has never had an opportunity to make himself familiar, for example, the satirists, Juvenal, Persius, and Petronius. But will the reading of these masterpieces help him to teach Caesar and

Virgil and Cicero? The question may be dismissed as useless. He may never find it pertinent indeed even to mention these names to boys and girls only just in their teens, but by this intensive study of a representative group of Latin masterpieces he will come to know Roman life and thought and Rome's history better, he will get a firmer grasp of the principles of government by which Rome, mistress of the world, bestowed on every hand her civilizing influence, an influence which is felt to this very day, and most of all he will learn how to deal with sources of information, to weigh evidence and to draw conclusions. This last will be of service to him whether he ever teaches or no. Besides this seminary course the candidate will listen also to lectures on historical Latin grammar, will read facsimiles of Latin manuscripts written in various hands, learning what textual criticism is and by what means the works of Caesar have been transmitted through the ages from the first "autograph" copy to the twentieth-century edition, and he will become acquainted with the great body of Roman literature preserved on marble and bronze and stone, the Latin inscriptions, of which a collection of over 200,000 has survived. In classical archaeology the candidate will study Roman topography, that is, the monuments of ancient Rome, existing or destroyed, with their location, he will study Roman art in its various manifestations, he will study Roman private life in the remains of Pompeii, and he will glory in the splendor that was Athens' in her architecture and sculpture. The methods of work in German will be similar to those employed in the Latin seminary, and Goethe or Schiller may be selected for intensive study, the object being to train students to see things from the German point of view. While doing his major work in Latin the candidate should also pursue courses in collegiate Greek, or, if he was unable to get Greek in his preparatory school, he should begin the subject in the university. The reasons why the acquisition of this language is so important would lead us into a discussion aside from the purpose of this paper, but it may be stated conclusively that for the well-equipped, resourceful teacher of Latin a knowledge of Greek is absolutely indispensable.

Is this only an ideal course of study, one impossible of realization? Not so. It is entirely feasible and every year is proved to be so at many universities. Perhaps it seems a good deal to do in so short a

time, but a good deal can be done in a long and busy college year, if one is ambitious. Having obtained the Master's degree following such a course of study, if the prospective teacher can spend a year or two in study and residence abroad, as, for example, at the American School of Classical Studies in Rome or in Athens, his enthusiasm will know no bounds and he will bring to his teaching an inspiration that will animate even the dullest boy. But, finally, the teacher should remember that this year of training represented by the Master's degree will be worth while only in case it enriches his teaching after proper assimilation and judicious use of the learning thus acquired. His erudition should not obtrude itself in the classroom. Otherwise he will soon be teaching "over the heads" of his pupils. It is so tempting and natural for university graduates to introduce university methods into the high school, but there is nothing more fatal to success, especially to the young and inexperienced teacher who has not yet found himself and fails to realize that he is not dealing with men and women as at the university, but with mere boys and girls who present the rawest material. There is no question in anyone's mind, there can be none, that the additional year of collegiate training of the type which I have outlined is exceedingly valuable for the secondary teacher of Latin. Qualities of personality and efficiency being assumed as equal, the Latin teacher with such a training will from the beginning gain in competition upon the Latin teacher who has merely the preparation represented by a Bachelor's degree. The standards of qualification for secondary teachers in general are being gradually raised; and students who wish to devote themselves to the work of secondary instruction and to prepare themselves to hold ultimately the best positions owe it both to themselves and to the profession to give themselves, no matter at how great sacrifice, the best preparation possible.

Notes

Contributions in the form of notes or discussions should be sent to Campbell Bonner, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.

MODE OR MOOD?

In itself the question whether we should use mood or mode is trivial; for mature scholars it makes no difference, and nobody cares which form another scholar employs. But for young people the case is not quite the same. To them it may well be a little confusing to hear one teacher use one form and another another. If such differences put the slightest barrier in the way of learning two difficult languages, then it would be a gain to come eventually to an agreement on one or the other. There is here, I think, a bit of avoidable friction and loss. That is why I should like to see teachers and school books come to an agreement. Is there any ground for preference between the forms?

The majority use mood—all the Latin grammars, Goodwin in his *Grammar* and in his *Moods and Tenses*, and Gildersleeve in all his work on syntax. Perhaps this ought to settle it. For me this would settle it, whatever my previous practice, but for the one little fact, that pure reason is on the other side. Historically the word is Latin *modus*, German *Modus*, French and English “mode.” The form mood was a blunder, due to confusion with the other word mood, German *Muth*, etc. Some half-learned scholar fancied the word should be mood, because *modus* of the verb indicated the mood or state of mind of the speaker. The notion was attractive. Dr. Johnson, though he correctly distinguished the two etymologies, adopted it in so far that his dictionary never allowed our meaning to the spelling, “mode.” So the false notion was strengthened and perpetuated, as were so many other blunders that got imbedded in the same “authority.” Plausible error has wonderful power of self-propagation.

But many never accepted the blunder, Latin *modus* being always at hand, so long as all grammars were in Latin, to suggest the correct form. In this country it happened that the Yale tradition has been nearly uniform. Woolsey, Hadley, Whitney, and among Latinists Morris, have adhered to mode. The present writer in using mode has merely followed his teachers. The Hadley-Allen *Grammar* and Babbitt's revision of it have retained mode. So a respectable minority have been on the side that is etymologically better.

But that need make no difference, and would make no difference with me, if we could hope for agreement on mood. Why can we not? Because

the power of reason, though very quiet, is a subtle and persistent force that never gets quite choked out. The unsophisticated mind dislikes error, even in small matters. The discrepancy between mood and the adjective modal is one of those useless little anomalies that people instinctively desire to get rid of. And as each older generation settles down to comfortable acceptance, a new generation comes on, takes a fresh look, and raises the disconcerting question, Why? Why not straighten this out? So there will always be a silent, steady force working for mode, and keeping that form alive. With reason on one side and nothing but inertia on the other, the latter may easily maintain its position for generation, but it can never completely win.

Several illustrations of what I mean lie near at hand. Two will suffice. Twenty-five years ago nearly all teachers of Greek in this country pronounced *αι* like *ai*. Some younger members of the Harvard faculty had adopted a pronunciation more nearly in accord with Athenian usage of the best period, believing that this would be on the whole better for students. The production of the *Oedipus* at Harvard in 1881 had made this minor reform widely known; a few schoolmasters had adopted it. But one might fairly doubt whether it could prevail, the overwhelming majority of teachers being against it. But reason slowly worked for it. Older men mostly did not change; but the newcomers generally followed reason when they were free to do so. No one doubts now that the more correct pronunciation is established in this country, and it is a part of the reformed pronunciation of Greek which is rapidly gaining ground in England.

Again in metric, the terms *arsis* and *thesis* got badly mixed in late Roman times. Modern usage reversed the original meaning of the words, until Westphal insisted on applying them correctly. Even his friend and partner in the study of metric never went with him in this; Roszbach's last volume, published in 1889, stuck to the erroneous tradition. A few school books still do the same, but it is clear that the tradition is practically defeated. Is there any writer on metric under fifty who does not follow the Greek usage?

In these cases and in plenty of others we may see that as a rule final agreement can be had only on the side of reason. In the present condition of classical studies we cannot afford to carry the slightest needless weight; we ought to have as few disagreements of this kind as possible, for the sake of our pupils. And in small matters as well as large Plato's principle is still sound: *ἐπιστήμη γὰρ οἶμαι δεῖ κρίνεσθαι ἀλλ' οὐ πλῆθει τὸ μέλλον καλῶς κριθήσεσθαι*. To be decided right, a thing must be decided in accordance with knowledge rather than by numbers.

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HOR. *Sat.* I. 10 (Ps.-Hor. *Introd.* vss. 3, 4)

The eight verses found in some of the MSS at the beginning of Hor. *Sat.* i. 10, are perhaps best taken as the work of a grammarian of about the time of Suetonius (cf. Fr. Marx *Lucilius*, proleg. li). In spite of the corrupt tradition of the text, it seems, as it stands, to make clear reference to Valerius Cato and his teacher, Vettius Philocomus (Suet. *De gramm.* 2), as champions of Lucilius. Further light is, I think, thrown upon the text of these verses, by the same passage from Suetonius: "Hactenus tamen imitati, ut carmina parum adhuc vulgata vel defunctorum amicorum vel si quorum aliorum probassent, diligentius retractarent ac legendo commentandoque etiam ceteris nota facerent. . . . ut Laelius Archelaus Vettiusque Philocomus Lucilii satyras familiaris sui, quas legisse se apud Archelaum Pompeius Lenaeus, apud Philocomum Valerius Cato praedicant." Assuming that the author of the pseudo-Horatian verses follows Suetonius, or that perhaps they both use the same source, I would suggest that the original reading of vss. 1-4 was:

Lucili, quam sis mendosus, teste Catone,
defensore tuo, pervincam, qui male factos
emendare parat versus, hoc Laelius ille,
cum Lenaeus adest, longe subtilior illo
qui, etc.

instead of in vss. 3-4:

hoc lenius ille
quo melior vir fest longe subtilior illo

where Keller and Holder give half a page of variants. Paleographically I would explain the process of corruption as follows: *Lenaeus* of vs. 4 (written *leneus*) and *Laelius*, vs. 3 (written *lelius*), exchanged places in the text in the transmission. Then *leneus* became *lenius* and the unmetrical combination QVOMLELIVSADEST was divided QVO MELIVS ADEST and then changed to *quo melior vir adest*, or various other readings to give sense and meter (assuming as we must archaic *quom* for *cum*); I would read *adest* for *fest* in any case. The meaning of the passage would then be: "Lucilius, how teeming with faults you are, I will prove by the witness of Cato, your champion, who essays to correct your verses. In this respect the well-known Laelius, backed by Lenaeus, is far more discriminating than that other editor," etc. (By this "most learned of the grammatic knights" we are to understand Vettius Philocomus, the teacher of Valerius Cato.)

In this passage, then, we have, combined with Lucilius, the names of

the whole coterie of enthusiasts mentioned by Suetonius, and at the same time we can perceive a motive for the composition of the spurious verses.

It is quite possible that from the corruption of the text in Suetonius or in these pseudo-Horatian lines, *Lenius* was accepted as the spelling of the friend of Lucilius, and *Silius* came into existence from a misreading of *Laelius* (*Lelius*). Such an hypothesis would readily explain the otherwise unsupported statement of Schol. Vallae *ad Juv.* i. 20: "Magnus Auruncae alumnus," where besides Lucilius, "vel Lenium dicit qui et ipse satyras scripsit vel Silium et ipsum sui temporis satyricum, qui omnes ex Aurunca fuerunt." Casaubon (*De Satyrica Graecorum Poesia et Romanorum Satira*, Lib. II, p. 298) observes: "an scribendum Lenaeum? estne hic ille Satiarum poeta quem antea commemoravimus? nominatur ibidem et Silius quidam, qui non est Silius Italicus" (cf. Teuffel §332. 9).

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In the January issue of the *Classical Journal* Professor John Greene makes certain remarks upon my definition of ictus in Latin poetry. While I entertain no unwillingness to have my views on this or any other topic made the subject of discussion, and should take no occasion to complain in case they were condemned after candid examination, yet I must take exception when, as in the case of the article referred to, my views are misrepresented. My general position is this: If a writer is not familiar with the views he undertakes to discuss, he has not the right to discuss them—the moral right, I mean. If he *is* familiar with them, he has no right to represent their author as saying what he does not say, or as remaining silent on material points where he has been clear and explicit. Let me be specific.

On p. 117, Professor Greene quotes from my *Latin Grammar* as follows: "In every foot the long syllable naturally receives the greater prominence. This prominence is called ictus." It is not of great importance, perhaps, that this quotation is made from the first edition of my *Latin Grammar*, which has been out of print for a year, and that the revised edition (March, 1908) has a more precise formulation of the definition as follows (366, 5): "In every fundamental foot (these are defined in 366, 2, as the trochee, iambus, dactyl, and anapaest) the long syllable naturally receives the greater prominence. This prominence is called ictus."¹

¹ This more precise definition has also stood for years in my *Horace*, in my *Teaching of Latin*, p. 181, and in my *Virgil*.

Professor Greene continues: "What of the spondee, not mentioned, by the way, among the most important kinds of feet? The only important kinds, it seems, are those which this new rule can be made to fit." If Professor Greene has read my article in the *American Journal of Philology* XIX. 361 ff. he must know that I have discussed at length the objection he raises. On p. 380 of that article I say:¹

Professor Hale first objects that my definition of ictus as "the quantitative prominence inherent in a long syllable" will not hold, because it will not apply to the second long syllable of the spondee when the spondee is substituted for the dactyl in dactylic verse. But the second long of the spondee in such case is *not* quantitatively prominent. As already pointed out above, the spondee is not a fundamental foot; when it is used as a substitute for the dactyl, it naturally takes on in consciousness the dactylic character, i. e., the quantitative prominence is felt in consciousness as resting on the first syllable. The second long of the spondee is just as naturally felt to be not-prominent, because it is felt in consciousness as corresponding to the two shorts of the dactyl, which are not quantitatively prominent. In defining ictus as the quantitative prominence inherent in *the* long syllable of *fundamental feet*, I by no means say or imply that every long syllable is quantitatively prominent. The situation is precisely the same in English verse. There we define ictus as the accentual prominence inherent in a stressed syllable. Yet not every stressed syllable is accentually prominent in English verse. In English iambic measures the foot often consists of two stressed syllables; yet the first of these is not felt as accentually prominent, simply because the verse has enough pure iambs to gain a distinct iambic character (˘ –) and an occasional spondee (– –) is naturally felt as prominent only in the second accented syllable.

Professor Greene may or may not accept my conclusions, but that is not the point. The point is that I have *given consideration* to this question, while Professor Greene in discussing my position seems either ignorant of what I have written on the subject or else guilty of a *suppressio veri*, in that, knowing my views, he allows his readers to believe that I have ignored the difficulty he mentions.

Professor Greene continues: "In the light of such a definition, how is the learner to comprehend the meter of such a line as (Horace) i. 21. 2: 'In tonsum, pueri, dicite Cynthium? . . . ' *Intonusum* must have an ictus on each syllable." Here again Professor Greene is either ignorant of what I really say, or suppresses my actual view. I have nowhere said that I regard – – as a fundamental foot, or that every long syllable has quantitative prominence. In fact, as already pointed out, I have explicitly disclaimed any such view.

¹ See also my *Quantitative Reading of Latin Poetry*, p. 3, where the "ictus" of the spondee is explained.

While perfectly ready to admit that my views are not set forth in detail in my *Latin Grammar*, yet I must urge that the question which Professor Greene is discussing is not the adequacy of my *Grammar*, either for the study of Horace's lyric meters or for any other purpose, but the soundness of my conception of ictus. Since this is so, and since in my *Grammar* I expressly disclaim any purpose of giving guidance in the matter of reading lyric meter, I feel justified in expecting that any one who discusses my position on the subject of ictus should discuss it in the light of all I have written on the subject, and not merely in the light of a brief statement (necessarily dogmatic) contained in a book for some time out of print.

Professor Greene concludes: "Well, this is progress; it is always useful to discover the uselessness of any alleged principle." Progress! One of the most delicate and difficult of all the problems of Latin philology is thus dismissed, without any discussion of the arguments which have been raised in defense of my theory of ictus—even without any intimation that I have ever adduced any arguments. Not a word of reference to what Madvig has said; not a word of reference to the new arguments brought forward by Gerhard Schultz; not a word of reference to the keen observations of Kaucinszki. Thirty-nine lines of misrepresentation and suppression, and the job is done!

May I say in conclusion that in classical philology, as in everything else, our only safe refuge is in truth, and that not only is no progress made, but great harm is done by the perversion or suppression of facts?

CHARLES E. BENNETT

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Reports from the Classical Field

Edited by J. J. SCHLICHER

It is the purpose of this department to keep the readers of the *Journal* informed of events and undertakings in the classical field, and to make them familiar with the varying conditions under which classical work is being done, and with the aims and experiences of those who are in one way or another endeavoring to increase its effectiveness. The success of the department will naturally depend to a great extent on the co-operation of the individual readers themselves. Everyone interested in the *Journal* and in what it is trying to do is therefore cordially invited to report anything of interest that may come to his notice. Inquiries and suggestions will also be useful in directing the attention of the editors to things which may otherwise escape their notice. Communications should be addressed to J. J. Schlicher, 1811 N. Eighth Street, Terre Haute, Ind., or (for New England) to Clarence W. Gleason, Volkmann School, 415 W. Newbury St., Boston, Mass.

RECENT CLASSICAL MEETINGS IN THE STATES

Meetings were held this winter in a larger number of states than usual. All the meetings, with the exception of that in Vermont, were held as sections of the state teachers' association. The Wisconsin meeting was held in November, the Vermont meeting on December 5, and all the rest during the Christmas vacation. Newly formed sections met for the first time in Wisconsin, California, and Ohio. In California only the northern part of the state was represented, the southern half holding its meetings at another time of the year. The Ohio meeting was a section of the Ohio College Association, and was, consequently, different from the others in its character. Below are given the programmes of the meetings with a brief summary of a number of the papers.

California.

"Making the Study of the Classics Worth While," Professor James T. Allen, University of California.

"The First Year in Latin," Monroe S. Deutsch, University of California.

It is to the interest of all students, whether they study Latin only two years, or longer, to pass more quickly to reading. Much of the syntax taught, such as conditional sentences, wishes, the supine, the dative of reference, the various temporal clauses, etc., have no place in the first year. The principal parts of comparatively few verbs need be learned, and in learning words the emphasis should be on their meaning and not on such things as genitives and gender. The time thus gained should be employed in stressing the really essential words of the vocabulary and in beginning to read earlier.

"Some Needed Changes in the Teaching of the Classics," Chas. B. Gleason, San José High School.

The paper insisted upon the present-day value of classical study, but held that changes are necessary to meet the demand for results as shown in mastery of the language. We need beginner's books stripped to the essentials of grammar, with a

maximum of easy reading; composition should be left for the college. A broad selection of authors should supplement Caesar, Cicero, and Virgil. Cicero's orations are somewhat objectionable on ethical grounds. Let the goal be a reading knowledge of easy prose. There is no valid objection to non-classical prose, except for purposes of composition. Justinian's *Institutes* would be a valuable addition to the third or fourth year course.

Colorado.

"The Classical Teacher's Leisure Time: What Shall He Do With It?" Ella R. Metsker, University of Denver.

It was suggested that leisure time can best be used to make the acquaintance of some other branch of learning, to mix with the world about you, especially the young, and learn to appreciate its interests, to seek the flavor and throw away the shell in any outside reading of the classics themselves.

"Iota Subscript or Idomeneus of Crete?" Ralph S. Pitts, East Side High School, Denver; discussed by A. H. Dunn, Fort Collins High School.

The paper illustrated by a typical recitation, presented in detail, in the *Iliad* (iota subscript) and the *Aeneid* (Idomeneus of Crete), how the stumbling and fumbling ways of a Greek or Latin class do, nevertheless, lead to sound habits of observation, investigation, and reasoning, and open up to the pupils a vision of a world of culture, how they gradually form those habits and attitudes of the mind which are fundamental to all intellectual activity.

"The Teaching of Virgil," Milo G. Derham, University of Colorado; discussed by Ellen A. Kennan, East Side High School, Denver.

Indiana.

"First Year Latin Syntax," Lillian Carter, Princeton; discussed by W. L. Carr, Indianapolis.

Two results are to be secured in studying Latin syntax, the practical ability to use its principles in translation, and the development of language consciousness. Latin develops the language consciousness more than a modern language, because it is so highly inflected that long consideration of grammatical principles is necessary to gain a working knowledge of the language. From the beginning the pupil should be led first to grasp the idea to be expressed by the inflected form. E. g., when the first dative is presented, the main stress should be placed not on the translation, but on the relation expressed by the dative. After several uses of a case or mood have been studied, with their varying translation, the pupil learns to be on the alert for the possibilities of the given form. The principles of syntax are fixed by repetition in regular lessons, and by reviews with original illustrations by the pupils.

"Nepos in the High School: An Old Experiment tried Anew," J. O. Engleman, State Normal School; discussed by Stella Peede, Goshen.

As a result of his own experience as a student and teacher, the writer urged that Nepos be used as a high-school text beside Caesar. The interest of the student in the *Lives*, even greater than his interest in the *Commentaries*, was attributed to the shorter sentences and simpler style of Nepos, the more frequent glimpses of customs and institutions, the delightful character sketches, the smaller amount of indirect discourse, and the greater variety presented by the lives of many different men, as compared with the narrow interest of Caesar. "If the first twelve weeks of the second year are given to the study of Nepos, the student will not only be growing in strength necessary for reading Caesar later, but will be doing a piece of work valuable for its own sake."

"An Appreciation of the *Oedipus Tyrannus* of Sophocles," Professor C. H. Hall, Franklin College.

The paper considered the Sophoclean treatment of the Oedipus myth from the

literary standpoint, and dwelt on the undying fascination of the play. Again and again attempts have been made to reproduce its tenor and charm by translation, but nothing is clearer than that the *Oedipus* still remains—in the Greek.

"A Latin Lyrist," Professor H. M. Kingery, Wabash College.

After a brief sketch of the life, circumstances, and works of Catullus, the writer illustrated fully several of the main lines of his poetry—his love for Lesbia, his relations to his brother and to Caesar, Cicero, and Calvus, and the epithalamia. The personal and emotional character of most of his verse was brought out at some length, especially the course of his infatuation for Lesbia, and his attachment to his brother. Many translations were given in English verse and the original meters.

"The Power of the Classics," Louis Howland, of the *Indianapolis News*.

Iowa.

"What Can Be Done by the Latin Teachers in the Classroom to Remove the General Impression that Latin Is not a Practical Study?" Louise Smith, Cedar Rapids High School.

"The Work in Iowa; its Relation to the Association," Professor F. C. Eastman, State University.

The preparation and equipment of Iowa high-school teachers of Latin. Nothing can take the place of knowledge of the subject, but contact with other teachers through participation in the Latin Round-Table meetings will do much to keep the work alive. Danger of becoming provincial. Relation of the Latin work in Iowa to that in other states, and the necessity of being in close touch. Value of the Classical Association of the Middle West and South as a nerve center for the classical work in the various states. Value of the *Classical Journal* as a live wire of communication between them.

Minnesota.

"How Shall we Teach Latin?" John E. Kenny, Central High School, St. Paul.

The paper, presented in English, though originally written in Latin, made a strong plea for a living study and use of Latin, holding that such a study would be a preparation, not for this or that author, but for all authors and all purposes whatsoever. A number of practical suggestions were made—question and answer, as well as other exercises in the classroom, should be in Latin from the start, there should be frequent use and repetition, in Latin, of words and phrases already learned, pictures of temples, houses and other objects may be drawn on the board and explained to the class in very simple Latin, stories may be told with those words which the class knows, Latin songs may be sung. The writer expressed the hope that a summer school might be established by Latin teachers, in which they might, through the instruction of someone who speaks the language, acquire the necessary facility to put his suggestions into practice.

"A School Fetich—Latin Composition," Josephine M. Tryon, Winona High School.

"Syntax; How much is necessary in the first two years?" Amy R. French, Plainview.

Missouri.

"The Place of Latin Prose in the High School," Lillian I. Shock, Warrensburg High School; Gertrude F. Liggett, Westport High School, Kansas City.

"Problems of First-year Latin," Norman Freudenberger, Springfield Normal School.

The problem of the class resolves itself into the problem of the slow pupil and can be solved in small high schools by individual instruction; and, where numbers justify, classes of the slower pupils may be formed.

The problem of the teacher is to know the relative importance, for the work in hand, of vocabulary, inflection, syntax, composition, etc. Vocabulary is essential and should include not only knowledge of words but knowledge of their relative importance. While inflection also is important, the test of efficiency is not an ability to recite paradigms, but to give immediately any form of any inflected Latin word. Syntax should be emphasized only so far as it is needful for the interpretation of the Latin sentence. Experience shows that the composition work done by a first-year Latin class should not be assigned as outside work, but should be done under the immediate supervision of the teacher.

Perhaps the most vital point of the teacher's problem relates to the method of attacking the Latin sentence. It is nonsense to dissect the sentence as a whole. The student should follow word for word, just as in his mother tongue. Some such result can be approached if the teacher at every recitation reads Latin sentences aloud to the class for translation.

Most of the new textbooks embrace too much material to admit of any easy reading during the first year, if their material is taken up independently. Time for such reading, however, is desirable and may be obtained by making it the basis of the study of some of the more difficult constructions, which then need not be taken up independently. It is well to have at least two months of easy reading before Caesar is approached.

"Report on First-year Latin Books," Katherine Morgan, Central High School, Kansas City.

"A Discussion of Caesar as Second-Year Latin," F. C. Shaw, Westport High School, Kansas City.

After discussing the two opposing views of the purposes of Latin study—training and preparation for the reading of Latin literature—the writer stated his own position as follows: "Our method of teaching Latin in the high school should be such as to give to every pupil the full benefit of the training and discipline that the language affords, and which the pupil's age admits of, at whatever point he may cease to study it."

The paper compared our own methods with those abroad, where two years are spent on drill work in constructions and vocabulary, with daily translation into Latin, before Caesar is taken up. The proposal was made to put off one book of Caesar, if necessary, into the third year. Especial attention was called to the necessity of a sure knowledge of vocabulary, and to the articles dealing with this subject in the November and December numbers of the *Journal*.

"What is the Prospect for Greek in the Secondary Schools and What, if Anything, Can Be Done to Improve It?" Isaac M. Judson, Central High School, St. Louis.

"An Interpretative Reading of Sophocles' *Antigone*," Frederic A. Hall, Washington University.

A brief review of the various Greek plays based upon the story of Laius' descendants was followed by a translation, partly metrical, partly in prose, of the important scenes. The relation of the choral passages to the several dialogues and each character's introduction was noted in passing. The translation used was one made by some of the writer's former pupils. The various characters were then sketched and attention called to the fact that universal sympathy is with Antigone, the violator of the law, while Creon who gets no sympathy is supported by the whole state. But he violates a higher law and suffers the severer punishment. The battle between the human will and the divine will was recognized by the Greek tragic writers as always in existence, since the two wills are never entirely reconciled. Over all are the eternal decrees of fate.

Nebraska.

"Thoroughness in the First Year's Work," Ethel Masters, Kearney.

"Meeting the Tendency toward Substitutions for Latin in the High School Course," Fred M. Hunter, Norfolk.

"Unity of Secondary and Higher Study," Professor F. W. Sanford, University of Nebraska.

"Co-operation among the Teachers," Flora Fifer, Nebraska Wesleyan University.

Address, E. J. Goodwin, Packer Collegiate Institute.

New York.

"The Personal Relations between Caesar and Cicero," Minnie D. Crofoot, Palmyra.

"Caesar as Seen through the Eyes of Cicero," Joseph P. Behm, North High School, Syracuse.

Cicero early recognized the ability and importance of Caesar, and as the latter sought his goodwill, his feelings toward him became of the kindest. He appreciated his generosity and clemency (*Pro Marcello*), but was disappointed when he would not restore the constitution, of which his views and Caesar's were irreconcilable. Hence his rejoicing at Caesar's death. The paper was illustrated by quotations from the Orations and Letters.

"The Inductive Method of Teaching Caesar," Dr. Frank E. Welles, Geneseo Normal School.

The teacher should have a definite plan. Rules of grammar and the different usages and constructions should be developed by questioning. From three or more examples the rule may be established, and the class, in the future be held responsible. After the different uses of *ut*, *cum*, etc., have been discovered, they should be collected in outline.

Information concerning the Roman army, camp, Gaul, etc. should be gleaned by the way. In assigned work, a definite topic should be given for each day: questions upon the entire range of the grammar tend to discourage the pupil. A programme planned for the week to accompany the reading is very helpful. Forms may be taken up on one day, constructions on another, prose on another, etc. Such a plan gives the pupils greater confidence and enables the teacher to emphasize such topics as he chooses.

"Greek in the High Schools," Superintendent J. R. Fairgrieve, Fulton; discussed by Principal Geo. J. Dann, Roslyn.

The disappearance of Greek in the high school is due partly to the removal of the incentive formerly offered by the requirements for college entrance and graduation with the A. B. degree, partly to the pressure of industrial conditions which demand earlier specific preparation along technical lines. The colleges still hold the high-school graduate with Greek in higher esteem, but the introduction of industrial high schools, and their encouragement by the state, confirm the tendency in the other direction.

"Greek in the Colleges," Professor John I. Bennett, Union University; discussed by Professor H. M. Burchard of Syracuse and Professor Charles Knapp of Columbia.

The great defect of American education at present is lack of definition, and nothing needs definition more than the college. As matters now tend, the college will either be eliminated as serving no purposes or else—and more probably—determined and defined as a place where nothing not vitally profitable is taught, and yet little or nothing which is immediately convertible into cash, where learning may be pursued in a liberal spirit without trade-mark affixed. This would be, in a manner, a restoration

of the old college. Literature as the record of the human spirit would hold high place—perhaps the highest—and in literature, Greek. At present the position of Greek could be improved by making the Greek better, by restoring the qualitative standard of work, by resisting the desire for imperfect results quickly got. Numbers, which have their value, could and should be increased by introducing courses in the elements of Greek in all the colleges.

"The Roman Theatre" (illustrated), Professor Charles Knapp, Columbia University.

Ohio.

"A Linguistic Speculation," Professor John M. Burnam, University of Cincinnati.

The writer accepts Wundt's generalization to the effect that the history of language shows three important stages: 1. *Gegenständliches Denken*, when thought was purely objective and specific, dealing with separate individual acts and objects. Survivals in Latin, English, etc. 2. *Umständliches Denken*. Here man's speech reflects a series of scenes and situations, a set of moving pictures. 3. *Abstraktes Denken*, partly developed in ancient philosophy, wherein abstract and general terms make their appearance. These stages may be called objective, situational, and abstract. The situational stage is that of our Indo-European ancestors and is largely reflected in our ancient classics. Wundt's language theory coincides in its results with Usener's doctrine as to the development of the notion of the divine or supernatural from an individual phenomenon continually repeated and finally being ascribed to some god presiding over or accomplishing that act. If these two generalizations are correct, we may expect that in the distant future our language will become almost entirely abstract and general; that all literature dependent on figures of speech for its attractiveness will disappear and that the future poetry will more resemble philosophy than anything else we yet know. Religion will tend more and more to slough off the mythological element; but men will never really worship such an abstraction as a divine supreme being relieved of the incarnation of all human attributes.

"Our Number Signs," Professor Daniel Quinn, Antioch College.

Amongst the Arabs many minor offices, such as those of tax-accountants, book-keepers, and amanuenses were given to Byzantines, who could do such work in the way in which it had been done under the bureaucratic Byzantine government. Arabs were not appointed to such positions until they had learned to do this work in the way in which the Byzantines had been doing it. These Byzantines employed the letters of their alphabet as number signs. And when the Arabs brought number signs into Europe, they brought those which they had learned from the Byzantines. This view is supported by two passages in the *Annals* of Theophanes (CSHB, 664, 9-12 and 575, 10-17), which inform us that the Arabs needed the help of Christian notaries on account of the numerals.

After having felt the probability of a Byzantine or Greek origin for our numerals, then by examining the forms of these signs we at once see that most of them are simple developments from forms of Greek letters.

"The Work of the American School at Rome," Professor S. C. Derby, State University.

The writer compared the plan, support, and aims of the American school with those of the German, French, and British schools at Rome, gave a list of the prominent scholars who have taught there, and mentioned many of the younger men in our colleges who received part of their training there. Attention was called to the variety of courses, advantages, and attractions of the school.

Texas.

"How to Enliven Preparatory Classical Authors without Neglecting Grammatical Drill," Professor W. C. Vaden, Southwestern University, Georgetown; Miss Helen Devine, Austin.

"The Needs of Preparatory Latin in Texas: Why Are We a Year behind the Best Schools?" Professor J. W. Williamson, McKinney; discussed by Professor R. A. Smith, Marshall.

The chief causes for our being a year behind the best schools are a lack of appreciation of the value of the study of the classics and a lack of teachers prepared to teach Latin. With material things engrossing our attention things spiritual and intellectual have been lost sight of. A boy is not sent to school that he may be educated, but that his earning capacity may be increased. Long before Texas had a reputable college there were numerous colleges and academies in the older southern states in which students were given a classical training. Thus these states had a supply of classically trained teachers while in Texas there was a dearth of teachers able to teach Latin. Consequently in many secondary schools Latin was either poorly taught or not taught at all. The establishment of the state university and denominational colleges in Texas has increased the number of teachers able to teach Latin. But we still need more teachers and more efficient teachers.

"The Performance of the *Agamemnon* at Harvard in 1906" (illustrated), Dr. W. J. Battle, University of Texas.

"Advantages of the Classical Association of the Middle West and South to the Classical Teachers of Texas," Professor J. M. Gordon, Trinity University, Waxahachie; discussed by Miss Ilse Frischmeyer, Cameron.

The classical teachers of Texas are men and women of the usual amount of intelligence teaching the classics either through choice or persuasion. They range from the young teacher who has had a few months in Latin and expects to "go off to school" and therefore, wants a little "brushing up," to the man or woman who has spent years in preparation, has valuable teaching experience, and is a real inspiration to the students. Teachers of the classics in the state are doing as good work as are the teachers of other branches, but the classics are being put to a severe test and will fare according to the way in which the teacher acquits himself. He must be able to show firstly, secondly, thirdly, and fourthly, the *practical* value of the study of the classics.

To a Texas teacher who has had good technical training in the Latin language—this is imperative—the principal advantage of membership in this association is the monthly visits of the *Classical Journal*. This is especially true of the high-school teacher who is first to meet objections to the study of the classics and who needs very much the effective help that this *Journal* brings to him while he is at work with his classes.

"The Future of the Classical Section of the Texas State Teachers' Association," Professor F. A. Häuslein, Normal School, Denton; discussed by Professor S. J. Jones, Salado.

The chief objection to remaining a section of the association is that only one session is allowed, while two are necessary to a successful meeting. On the other hand, the programme is printed in full and widely distributed, and there is prospect of obtaining a larger space in the sessions of the association in the future.

Vermont.

This was the third annual meeting of the Vermont section of the New England Association. President Buckham of the university expressed his belief that both Greek and Latin are needed if we are to retain the finest strain of our intellectual life.

"How Far is it Possible to Teach Greek and Latin Meters?"

Dr. Sweldius, of Middlebury College, suggested the use of the metronome as an aid in appreciating quantity and avoiding heavy stressing. Principal Harriman, of

Middlebury High School, spoke of the difficulty of teaching a new rhythm in which stress is subordinate to quantity, and thought that secondary schools could not be expected to do more than give thorough instruction of the mechanical details of the hexameter and pentameter.

"Classics through Translations only: What Would a Student Gain That He Would not Gain through the Originals, and What Would He Lose?"

Both speakers, J. P. Taylor, of Vermont Academy, and Principal Fuller, of Brandon High School made a plea for the collateral reading of good English translations of the classics, but to give such reading the highest value they held that the teacher must himself have a classical training.

"What Greek and Latin Authors Can Profitably Be Substituted for Those now Required for Admission to College?"

The speaker, Principal Thomas, of Rutland High School, advocated no change, but suggested the reading of the best passages, instead of a prescribed number of books.

"Demonic Lore among the Greeks and Romans," Professor Ogle, University of Vermont.

"The Value of *Viva Voce* Methods in Teaching Latin."

Principal Colburn, of Bellows Free Academy, advocated strongly this method for arousing the student's interest and increasing his vocabulary.

"The Teaching of First-Year Latin."

H. N. Wood, of St. Johnsbury Academy, held that the first-year books at present have many difficult features during the early part of the work; the problem which the beginner has to solve should be made more definite.

Wisconsin.

"The Field for a Latin Association," Professor M. S. Slaughter, University of Wisconsin.

The name should be changed to include teachers of Greek, and the meetings should be planned to appeal to all teachers of the two languages. The common ground is that of methods and the essential content of the classics, not that of intensive special investigation. An association is useful for protection against the attacks made on the classics as factors in education, for encouragement in helping the teacher to justify these branches to the patrons of the schools, for stimulation in helping to make the teaching more vital and affective, and to give the pleasure of meeting other teachers of the classics from time to time.

"An Eastern Latin School: Its Ends and Methods," Principal J. B. Dean, Beloit.

The school described was the Brooklyn Latin School, founded by the late Dr. Caskie Harrison, whose principle was "Individualism in Education." This was no easy adaptation of the work of the pupil to personal whims and limitations, but a shaping of each boy's course to meet his peculiar needs. The headmaster held in mind all the details of the work of each pupil, and was especially close to the teaching of the Classics, though that teaching was mainly in the hands of his subordinates. The boy who took his entire preparatory course in the Latin School had five years of Latin and three years of Greek. The introductory discipline in forms was thorough, and was supplemented by lessons in prose composition each year, and a final review of paradigms at the end of the course. There were no examinations for promotion, but their place was amply filled by a constant review of essential principles in class, and by sundry devices for compelling a student to keep a ready command of usual forms and constructions. The Roman genius thus felt in the classroom appeared also in the accessories of school life: the student paper was *The Centurion*, a Roman helmet was the school pin, the athletic emblem was the caduceus of Mercury with serpents intertwined and sur-

mounted by the winged cap. Even the yell was in Latin. The prize card inserted in books given as prizes bore a picture of the youthful Augustus, with the motto: "Fallere sollers," which the headmaster paraphrased, "Manners, not violence," or, "Taste and tact." Perhaps the Latin is better than the English in suggesting the resourcefulness and effectiveness of the Latin School.

"Latin as it is Taught: Strength and Weaknesses," Professor A. W. Tressler, Madison.

Discussion: "How to Popularize Latin."

"Developing a Classical Spirit in the High School," Principal C. E. McLenegan, Milwaukee.

Discussion: "Methods and Devices."

"Latin Clubs," Leta Wilson, Darlington.

"Is There too Much Digging and Grinding, and Can it Be Lessened?" Professor E. W. Clark, Ripon.

Drill and thorough, careful work is necessary, but if carried on too persistently, will result in deadening all interest and stopping all real progress. Even in the first year individual Latin words may be made the basis for short talks. The life, dress, manners, ways of thinking of the ancients may be gradually illustrated. One of the best things to do is to give the class a full realization of what is contained in the text, the significance of the details in a description of a battle or a campaign of Caesar, the circumstances and purpose of an oration of Cicero. Variety and cheer may occasionally be added also by a brief quotation put on the board from some other author—an epigram of Martial, a lyric of Catullus, etc.

"Teaching Pronunciation," Mary Henderson, New London.

"Acquiring a Vocabulary," Mary Summer, Delavan.

"Diagraming as in Aid to Syntax," Professor A. W. Burr, Beloit.

The diagram represents to the eye the thought-relations of language by means of lines. Like the architect's plan, it guides the mind to the real. Horizontal lines for subject, verb, and object, and adjoining oblique lines for modifiers will give emphasis to the relations and help to make sure that they are seen. Explanatory abbreviations may be affixed to each oblique line. In the inflections the office of stem and endings may be set forth, and better understood by having the declensions written thus: *urb-s*, *-is*, *-i*, *-em*, *-s*, *-e*, etc., or the verbs: *ama+ba-m*, *-s*, *-t*, *-mus*, *-tis*, *-nt*. Such a diagram gives emphasis to every constituent part of the verb and its office, and reveals at once the genius of the inflected language. For it is not only the words, but even more the stems and endings that our pupils need to know.

Statistics of Foreign-Language Study in the High Schools.

The statistics of the United States Bureau of Education for the ten years 1895-96 to 1905-6 show an increase in the percentage of pupils studying English, history, and foreign languages (excepting Greek), and a corresponding decrease in the percentage of those studying the sciences (see the *Journal* for last June, p. 331). So far as the foreign languages are concerned, it appears that the increase was relatively large in French and German and moderate in Latin. The percentage of high-school pupils studying the different foreign languages throughout the whole country in 1895-96 was: Latin 46.18; Greek 3.11; French 6.99; German 12.00. Ten years later it was: Latin 50.34; Greek 1.23; French 8.85; German 20.96.

Different sections of the country and individual states show great variations from these figures. In the statements which follow, however, we shall confine our attention to the New England and middle states and to the Middle West, since it is in these sections that the public high school has reached its fullest development. Of these states, Massachusetts and Rhode Island have the largest percentage of high-school students enrolled in foreign-language classes. There, and also, to a less degree, in New Hampshire and Connecticut, the number of individuals in the language classes exceeds the total number of students in attendance, which shows that many pursue more than one language at the same time. In all the eastern states, except Pennsylvania, the number of foreign language students is very close to the total number enrolled in the schools.

Of the states in the Middle West only one, Minnesota, approaches the record of the eastern states, Ohio and Indiana following at some interval. In most of the middle western states the language students make up from $\frac{1}{3}$ to $\frac{1}{4}$ of the total number in the high schools. Only two, Michigan and Wisconsin, fall noticeably below this proportion. In Wisconsin less than half of all high-school pupils were studying a foreign language in 1905-6.

The greater proportion of language students in the East is largely to be accounted for by the fact that there three languages (Latin, French, and German) are studied by considerable numbers of pupils, while in the Middle West French, like Greek, is taken by an insignificant number, so that here only Latin and German are of importance numerically.

It appears from the table given below that the period of ten years (1895-96 to 1905-6) has in the Middle West, on the whole, been one of expansion for both Latin and German. Only in Michigan, Wisconsin, and Illinois the percentage of high-school students pursuing Latin has been stationary or has slightly decreased. If we leave out of account Michigan and Wisconsin, where the proportion of Latin students is relatively low, the percentage of Latin students in these states for 1905-6 ranged from 45 to 63. The percentage of students pursuing German ranged from 13 to 29.

	LATIN		GERMAN	
	1895-96	1905-06	1895-96	1905-06
Ohio.....	50.1	58.1	10.7	19.7
Indiana.....	58.1	63.8	8.5	19.7
Illinois.....	45.9	45.5	13.1	22.2
Michigan.....	32.1	33.0	14.3	21.6
Wisconsin.....	21.7	20.9	22.1	27.4
Minnesota.....	54.1	55.0	13.6	29.8
Iowa.....	36.7	49.8	6.9	15.8
Missouri.....	42.5	50.9	10.1	13.0
N. Dakota.....	50.7	56.0	0.4	16.8
S. Dakota.....	32.7	49.4	3.7	14.1
Nebraska.....	40.9	57.4	4.8	13.1
Kansas.....	50.5	56.9	9.7	17.5

In the eastern states the number and proportion of students in both the modern languages has, almost without exception, increased rapidly during the ten years, while the percentage of those in Greek has fallen to about half, and the percentage of Latin students has, for the whole section, been about stationary. Latin has fared worst in the New England states, notably Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island, where there has been a heavy decrease during the ten-year period under consideration. In New York and New Jersey, on the other hand, there has been a corresponding increase, while Pennsylvania remained about where it was at the beginning of the period.

	LATIN		GREEK		FRENCH		GERMAN	
	1895-96	1905-06	1895-06	1905-06	1895-96	1905-06	1895-96	1905-06
Maine.....	45.9	47.0	11.3	4.1	18.2	33.1	0.9	7.2
New Hampshire.....	52.9	49.0	7.8	2.1	20.0	42.9	2.9	6.3
Vermont.....	42.6	45.0	7.6	3.0	10.8	27.5	4.4	9.3
Massachusetts.....	51.6	38.8	10.1	4.3	37.9	42.2	9.2	17.9
Rhode Island.....	49.7	45.0	10.6	5.6	24.5	35.2	10.7	24.6
Connecticut.....	60.5	51.2	8.3	3.8	13.7	19.9	21.0	21.0
New York.....	34.6	47.8	4.4	2.0	5.5	14.7	18.5	37.4
New Jersey.....	39.3	44.5	3.3	1.2	5.3	9.3	27.2	18.1
Pennsylvania.....	54.8	54.2	2.4	1.4	4.9	4.9	18.4	28.0

It is especially noteworthy that in all the New England states, except Connecticut, the number of pupils studying French is much greater than the number studying German. The proportion is reversed in the middle states, and in the Middle West, as we have already stated, German is practically the only modern language studied in the high school. This state of things in New England has, no doubt, had much to do with the decrease in Latin and Greek. It seems evident that German is to be the leading modern language for high-school instruction in this country, for its gains have been very rapid in all sections. Where these gains have been made over and above a widespread instruction in French already existing, as in New England, the reduction in Latin and Greek has been a direct result. One should perhaps say that it has been a necessary result. For the proportion of the students' time which is devoted to foreign languages cannot be, and should not be, extended to unreasonable limits.

It seems to be true also that French is rather more naturally looked upon as a culture subject than German, whose advance is more directly due to an alliance with practical subjects and to its value as an instrument of investigation. French will therefore, where it is taught, be more readily accepted as a substitute for Latin than German would. And since it is a language of Latin stock, with many of the same fundamental traits in its literature, its substitution for Latin would commend itself on other grounds also. There is no likelihood of any such substitution however, except in New England, where it is due to the effort to have the high schools generally carry more than one ancient and one modern language in their curriculum.

Book Reviews

Three Tragedies of Seneca. By HUGH MACMASTER KINGERY. New York: Macmillan, 1908. Pp. 310.

The tragedies of Seneca deserve some place, even though it be not a great one, in the classical curricula of both the college and the university. If the number of electives is limited, as is necessarily the case in some of our smaller colleges, the plan of making Junior and Senior Latin each consist of alternating courses enables the student who desires to specialize to become fairly familiar with almost all of the important Latin authors. In such courses, Seneca, one of the representative writers of the Silver Age both as philosopher and as dramatist, should take his proper place beside the two Plinies, Juvenal, Quintilian, and Tacitus. His plays are especially worthy of study because they are the only complete Latin tragedies extant today; even though they were intended primarily for recitation, they are not vastly different from the earlier acted Latin tragedy of Ennius and Naevius.

Professor Kingery's edition of the *Hercules Furens*, the *Troades*, and the *Medea* is a textbook exactly suited to the needs of an undergraduate who wishes to read only a small amount of Seneca. The book opens with an introduction which effectively prepares the reader for the author whom he is about to study. This introduction is made up of a number of short essays on such themes as "Tragic Literature at Rome," "The Senecan Tragedies," "Greek Models," "Stage Setting," "The Question of Authorship," "Seneca's Life," written in an attractive, unpretentious style. There follow two or three pages on versification which make the usually puzzling problem of meter comparatively simple; unfortunately there are here some unnecessary repetitions. A brief notice of the manuscripts and editions comes after these remarks on prosody; a more logical arrangement would have placed them after the section on "Seneca's Works."

The text, based for the most part on that of Leo (Berlin, 1879), is conveniently provided with accents. Perhaps if stage directions had been inserted at the beginning of each scene, and elsewhere as occasion demanded, the dramatic nature of the works might have been more vividly thrust upon the attention of the unimaginative student. Very wisely, little space is devoted to textual difficulties. The notes are judiciously written and are kept within seemly bounds. Although the mythological explanations are given with considerable fullness, every now and then the editor insinuatingly admonishes the reader to consult the classical dictionaries. References and quotations should be sparingly used in making notes for a school or college textbook; Professor Kingery, however, certainly is justified in pointing out the relation of Seneca's plays to their Greek originals, and in showing how they abound in reminiscences of Ovid, Horace, and Virgil. Occasionally

an original illustration strikes the attention, as that in the note to *Hercules Furens* 841, where the Roman method of reckoning both the beginning and end in counting is compared to our designation of the musical intervals, as "thirds," "fifths," and "octaves;" or again in the note on *Troades* 79, where the injunction of the chorus to Hecuba:

*ite ad plactus, miseramque leva,
regina, manum,*

is compared to the handling of the baton by the conductor of a modern orchestra.

Finally, the brief words of criticism and appreciation scattered throughout the commentary seem to me one of its most admirable features. Such little phrases as "This whole passage, depicting the hero's awakening from his trance, is admirably done," "The last three lines of the scene, with their smooth movement and abounding liquids, echo the change of spirit from the fierce wrath of the hero to the peace that followed his departure," "A fine expression of the responsibility that goes with power," "Intensely sarcastic," "A fine bit of special pleading, in which Helen makes out that her own lot is hardest of all and that she herself is wholly innocent," are just what the average student needs to make him sit up and take notice, *ut ita dicam*. Too often he, and sometimes, alack, his teacher also, overlooks the possibility that literary beauty and power may lie hidden in the pages of even our minor Latin authors.

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The Rule of Three Actors in the Classical Greek Drama. By KELLEY REES. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1908. University of Chicago Dissertation. Pp. 86. \$0.79.

In this dissertation Dr. Rees boldly challenges the current interpretation of the three-actor law in its application to classical Greek drama: This law, based largely on Aristotle *Poet.* iv. 1449a, 11-14, and the lexicographers, has commonly been taken to mean that three speaking actors, by the doubling of rôles, were sufficient for the performance of a play. This interpretation Rees believes to be the result of a misconception: the law is in reality an aesthetic canon formulated by Aristotle with reference to the artistic form of the drama, not to the economy of its production. Its real meaning, for the classical period, is that not more than three speaking actors should appear on the scene at the same time.

After (I) the Introduction, dealing with the formulation of the rule by modern scholars, its development, and the scope of its application, (II) the evidence for the so-called law is treated in detail. Next (III) the distinction is drawn between the aesthetic canon of Aristotle and the economic conditions determining the number of actors employed in a play. The fourth chapter (IV) urges six valid objections to the law as usually applied, but (V) there may have been a practical three-actor rule in the period of the guilds. Finally (VI), a redistribution of rôles is suggested in selected plays.

The protest is certainly worth making, and the presentation is, for the most part, convincing. It must be confessed that there is no adequate reason why the number of actors required for the successful production of a play in the classical period should have been limited to three, and Dr. Rees has shown that there is no convincing evidence that it was.

J. G. WINTER

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Principes de linguistique psychologique: Essai de synthèse. Par JAC. VAN GINNEKEN. Paris: Rivière; Leipzig: Harrassowitz, 1907. Pp. vii+552. Fr. 12.

The author aims at "la recherche des causes plus profondes de tous les phénomènes linguistiques dans leur *devenir* intime." Confessedly he covers the same ground as Wundt (*Die Sprache*, 2d ed., 1904), distinctly asserting his belief that Wundt was not entirely successful. Wundt's defect consists in the preponderance of theory over fact, and hence "il est de toute nécessité de faire de nouveau une revue universelle des faits et de rechercher *non pas* ce que ces faits *illustrent*, mais ce qu'ils *prouvent*." Yet the new book cannot take the place of Wundt's, for 552 pages cannot cover the ground of Wundt's 1,250 pages and include great masses of facts in addition. Some topics must of necessity be discussed briefly, and others omitted entirely. For example, the principle of association, upon which depends the whole range of analogy formations, might have received an extended and separate treatment, following the lines so excellently marked out by Oertel or by Tarde.

The chief characteristic of the book (shared in part by Wundt) is its orderly arrangement of the principles of psychology, so far as these concern the production and understanding of speech, with ample linguistic proofs of each step taken. This is the reverse of the method usually adopted by the *Sprachforscher*, who gathers his facts into classes, and gives each class its appropriate explanation. The newer method often brings together phenomena which the linguist is in the habit of keeping apart, but for this reason it gains in interest and value. Psychological principles are not in themselves treated with great originality; it is in their application to the history of language that the author holds decidedly novel views.

In the first part, the "*image verbale*" is treated at length, and with noteworthy lucidity. Too much stress is laid upon the influence of the written on the spoken language, in criticism of the doctrine of Paul (*Prinzipien*, pp. 358 ff.). The statements of Nyrop (*Manuel phonétique*, p. 139) acquire an exaggerated importance by the failure to cite them in full. The author might have found stronger arguments in support of his thesis from Hatzidakis (*Die Sprachfrage in Griechenland*, 1905).

The second book deals with the rise of grammatical categories, with an

effort, not quite successful, to harmonize the views of Delbrück and Morris on the question of agglutination and adaptation.

The fourth book, *Volonté et automatisme*, is of most direct interest to the student of form. The book is extremely radical, as may be seen from the explanation of phonetic laws as "le jeu combiné, de nos principes d'automatisme psychologique sur toutes les qualités des phonèmes du langage, disons sur nos cinq sortes d'accent." On the subject of melody, the author apparently does not know the great work of Sievers (*Rektorsrede*, 1901; *Metrische Studien*, 1901-7).

The whole work is exceedingly interesting and suggestive, but stands in marked contrast to the conservatism of Oertel, Paul, and Gabelentz.

R. W. HUSBAND

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The Influence of Plato on Saint Basil. By THEODORE LESLIE SHEAR. Baltimore: J. H. Furst Co., 1906. Pp. 60.

Mr. Shear ascribes the influence of Plato on Saint Basil to the latter's immediate study of Plato under the inspiration of his early Greek teachers, rather than to the secondary knowledge of Plato derived from the Christian fathers. Among Basil's works, however, which are for the most part theological and consequently dominated by Christian thought, only the *Hexaameron* and the *Homily to the Youth on Classical Literature* afford much evidence of direct imitation and reminiscence. It would naturally follow that of the three sections into which the dissertation is divided, namely, Theology and Ethics, Philosophy, Language, the weight of the proof would rest on the second and the third. Many of the parallels cited in the first are superficial and remote and apart from the following sections advance the argument little; e. g., p. 8, Bas. 4. 248D. 6, compared with Plat. *Tim.* 34B, and p. 9, Bas. 3. 565D. 1, with *Tim.* 34C.

The comparison of the *Hexaameron* with Plato's *Timaeus* is clear and logical. Mr. Shear has shown that in order of treatment, and in the thought Basil had not Philo Judaeus in mind, as some have thought, but Plato—in many instances adopting the theories of the *Timaeus*, in a few attempting a refutation.

Under the general heading of Language, the chapter on comparisons and metaphors in particular yields many interesting illustrations of the indebtedness of Basil also in style to his early Platonic studies.

GENEVA MISENER

A New Method for Caesar. By FRANKLIN HAZEN POTTER. Boston: Benj. H. Sanborn & Co., 1907.

The first thirty chapters of Book I of Caesar's *Gallic War* form the basis of this book—yet one more of the long line of helps designed to bring the student of Caesar by a more excellent way to the place where "he should have enough

mastery over Caesar's way of saying things to enable him to read with little difficulty the required Caesar from a regular edition" (Preface, p. v). "Out of the Caesarian briarpatch"—this were "a consummation devoutly to be wished." Yet in spite of the prophecy of "little difficulty" there will always be briars in this Gallic field. Still this endeavor to clear it is attractive and always will be.

The value of the book consists in the fact that there is an endeavor made to remove the difficulties of a given portion of text by a previous study of constructions and idioms found therein. While this is recognized as good teaching, it is not as common teaching as theory would suggest. From the unknown to the unknown is what is frequently tried.

A vocabulary of three hundred words is assumed as already acquired and then, each lesson consists of vocabulary, idioms, subjects for study and review, and simple sentences from the text to be read on the second day. In this way this briarpatch is to be cleared. The plan is good. It will help many a teacher who does not know how and will serve to direct the student along a line of less resistance. The illustrations are excellent and are a feature of the book.

H. J. BARTON

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Griechisches Elementarbuch. VON KARL SCHENKL. Im Anschluss an die fünfundzwanzigste Auflage der griechischen Schulgrammatik von Curtius-v. Hartel. Bearbeitet von HEINRICH SCHENKL UND FLORIAN WEIGEL. Zwanzigste Auflage. Wien: F. Tempsky, 1906. Pp. 240. K. 2 h. 85.

This book for beginners in Greek is composed on the thorough and generous plan characteristic of German instruction. As noted on the title-page, the Greek grammar is an indispensable accompaniment. The principal emphasis is of course laid on the paradigms, and for these the student is referred to the grammar. From the beginning they are introduced in orderly method: *ā*-declension (complete), *o*-declension (complete), consonant declension, and so on, following the arrangement of the grammar. Abundant practice in reading and writing Greek is provided; even the earliest exercises contain complete sentences—frequently, moral sentiments and aphorisms good for the youthful mind. Assembled in the latter part of the book are ample notes, which also provide a few paradigms of verbs in advance of the more formal study of the verb. The book introduces the student to Attic Greek, but to no author exclusively; its broad scope fits well into a programme which gives to Greek a much larger amount of time than the subject receives in American schools.

The longer reading selections, which are early and frequently introduced, are varied and extensive. They are taken from the works of several Greek writers, and are adapted in language and construction for the use of beginners.

Aesop is not neglected. From Xenophon the selections are considerable (*Anabasis*, *Cyropaedeia*, *Oeconomicus*). The romantic story of Pantheia and Abradatas is skilfully excerpted from the *Cyropaedeia*. There is the traditional "Poetischer Anhang" (two pages only).

The vocabulary at the end of the book, which may be regarded as an index of the variety of the reading exercises, contains over twenty-five hundred words.

Greek composition receives generous attention throughout; and for special practice in Greek syntax, after the forms are mastered, the book contains fourteen pages of German to be turned into Greek. Here the principles of syntax are taken up in the order of the sections of the grammar, except that the syntax of the verb is placed before the cases and prepositions.

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